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ABSTRACT

This document is a chapter in "The Principles and Practice of Educational Management," which aims to provide a systematic and analytical introduction to the study of educational management. The structure of the book reflects the main substantive areas of educational leadership and management, and most of the major themes are covered in the volume's 19 chapters, of which this is one. This chapter looks at recent developments in theory, research, policy, and practice in teachers' professional development and considers their implications for school leadership and management. It focuses on England and Wales because these areas offer good object lessons for autonomy, accountability, teaching and learning, strategy, and partnerships. It examines external changes in development, particularly the extensive national reforms introduced in many countries during the 1990s. These reforms resulted in extensive and radical changes in the roles and responsibilities of headteachers, other senior staff, and teachers in general. The subsequent model of professional development arising from these changes emphasized self-developing, reflective teachers in self-managing schools with devolved funding. However, the extent of the model being implemented was influenced by geography and the size of the professional development budget for a school. Other trends that affected professional development were national standards of professional practice for teachers, national curricula, performance management, and performance-related pay. None of these trends is unproblematic, and issues regarding evaluations of outcomes, the coordination of partnerships intended to promote professional development, and the question of what is the most appropriate institutional location for professional education all must be addressed. (Contains 65 references.) (RJM)

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Ray Bolam

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Professional Development and Professionalism

Ray Bolam

Introduction

Professional development is widely accepted as fundamental to the improvement of organisational performance and, therefore, as a core task of management and leadership. That this is also true for school management is evident from the importance attached to teachers' professional development over several decades by the member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (e.g. OECD, 1982; 1998; 2001). In addition, one distinctive, though by no means unique, feature of teacher development is its focus on an occupational group whose professional status and conditions of service vary between countries and, indeed, over time in any one country. The problematic and changing nature of their work and professionalism is, therefore, an important underlying consideration for all those concerned with managing the development of teachers.

The aim of this chapter is to consider the implications for school leadership and management of selected recent developments in theory, research, policy and practice in teachers' professional development and professionalism. Although they raise many related issues, studies on induction (e.g. Tickle, 2000) and leadership development (e.g. Leithwood and Hallinger, 2002) are not dealt with, largely because they are now so extensive. Although some reference is made to selected international studies, the chapter focuses on experience in England and Wales. This is largely because many key issues relevant to the concerns of this book – autonomy, accountability, teaching and learning, strategy and partnerships – are well exemplified in that experience.

The working definition of professional development adopted in this chapter is that it is:

- an ongoing process of education, training, learning and support activities
- taking place in either external or work-based settings
- proactively engaged in by qualified, professional teachers, headteachers and other school leaders
- aimed primarily at promoting learning and development of their professional knowledge, skills and values

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- to help them to decide on and implement valued changes in their teaching and leadership behaviour
- so that they can educate their students more effectively
- thus achieving an agreed balance between individual, school and national needs.

However, as we shall see, this definition is far from being unproblematic.

External changes

Perhaps the most powerful recent influences on the management of professional development and professionalism have been those generated by the extensive national reforms introduced in many countries during the 1990s. School leaders increasingly work in a political context in which external, 'restructuring' changes, initiated by national, state or local authorities to raise standards of achievement, exert priority over their own vision of desirable improvements. Their dilemma is, therefore, how to manage the implementation of an onerous external change agenda while simultaneously trying to promote school-initiated improvement and the associated professional development.

The nature and extent of this dilemma necessarily varies according to the situation in each school and with the content and scope of the national reforms. For example, while many countries decentralised school management tasks to the local or school levels, in England and Wales the redistribution of power was more complex. Schools gained some powers but local authorities lost many powers which were centralised to national level (Karstanje, 1999). Some countries, like Hungary (Balazs, 1999) and England and Wales (Whitty, 1997), introduced forms of neo-liberal deregulation, notably the promotion of increased competition between schools, in the belief that quasi-market mechanisms would promote quality improvement; others, like Norway and Spain (Bolam et al., 2000), did not. Nevertheless, many countries adopted the same broad 'steering' strategies, often based on dedicated or categorical funding, to couple professional development tightly to the implementation of their reform policies. Indeed, this approach has probably become the dominant paradigm for systemic change in OECD member countries (Halasz, 2000).

Compared to most other OECD countries, the approach in England and Wales was noteworthy for the sheer scale and scope of the post-1986 reform programme, which covered all 25,000 schools in the country. In summary, the main features of the reforms relevant to the theme of this chapter were as follows: local management of schools (LMS) (i.e. site-based management) with school level control over delegated budgets, pupil recruitment, strategic policy and planning, the hiring and firing of staff, staff development and buildings; the introduction of a quasi-market or regulated market in which parents

as customers/consumers exercise choice and schools as providers compete for custom (i.e. pupil numbers); substantial increases in the powers of central government and reductions in the powers of local education authorities (LEAs); the introduction of: a national curriculum and national testing; regular external inspections by a 'privatised' inspectorate; strengthened accountability mechanisms; government-imposed, national salary scales, conditions of service, career-ladders and appraisal, for all teachers and head teachers; an extended role for schools in initial teacher training which requires all training institutions to pay for training places and mentor support in their 'partner' schools; and the funding of selected schools to run school-based initial teacher training schemes themselves, buying in help from universities as necessary. Since May 1997, the Labour government has continued with much of the reform thrust of its predecessors but its policy emphasis has shifted away from marketisation to focus on the control of inputs, processes and outputs. Its main initiatives include the imposition of so-called 'tough targets' and the introduction, in primary schools, of literacy and numeracy schemes in which teaching time, content and pedagogy are specified.

These reforms resulted in extensive and radical changes in the roles and responsibilities of headteachers, other senior staff and teachers in general in what was, in effect, a cultural shift in schools and the teaching profession. Weindling (1999) reported that 90 per cent of a cohort of British secondary headteachers said their role had changed significantly over the previous five years while a European study found that Welsh heads were much more likely than their counterparts in The Netherlands, Norway and Spain to see government reforms as causing them substantial problems (Bolam et al., 2000). The reforms also resulted in the creation of new managerial posts associated with the national curriculum and assessment. The roles of existing heads of subject departments were also extended. For example, a head of mathematics in a secondary school may now be responsible for managing a devolved budget, including a component for professional development. They play a major role in the inspection process, are often responsible for staff appraisal and development and, latterly, for the new performance management and pay scheme. Their accountability for the performance of their department is also much more explicit and they are now held accountable for students' standard achievement tests (SATs) targets and examination results.

Changes in teachers' workloads and motivation are also evident. Campbell and Neill (1994) reported that their sample of 384 secondary school teachers, on average, worked 54.5 hours each week during term time, seven and a half hours per week more than for their 1978 sample, an increase which they concluded was largely due to the impact of the reforms. Comparing their findings with those for other countries and occupations, they concluded that their sample of teachers: 'actually work significantly longer hours than most other non-manual and manual workers in Great Britain and Europe' (ibid.: 68).

Although there are considerable financial incentives for teachers to apply for senior management positions – headteachers can earn up to five times the salary of a beginning teacher – teachers are less motivated to apply for promotion to deputy headships and headships and other posts carrying extra responsibilities. The number of such vacancies is increasing, mainly due to early retirements caused by stress, ill health and workload pressure, all of which are also having a negative impact on teachers' motivation and morale (School Teachers' Review Body, 1996: 15; Travers and Cooper, 1996). Teacher retention has also been negatively affected: up to 40 per cent of teachers with three years' experience now leave the profession. According to the Chief Inspector of Schools, if this situation is to be remedied, 'A careful look at the bureaucratic demands on teachers and a reduction in those at all levels was essential' (Smithers, 2001).

This experience is not unique to Britain. In New Zealand, teachers also reported high levels of stress and a decline in morale (Whitty, 1997: 305). In a similar vein, a comparative study of teachers' experience in Australia, New Zealand, the UK and the USA refers to the 'erosion of the profession', key features of which include decreased status, external interference, excessive change and increased workload (Scott et al., 2000).

Professional development

The centrality of teachers' work and professional development to the management tasks of headteachers is evident from international research and experience. For example, approximately 700 new, primary and secondary headteachers in five European countries were asked about the extent to which certain tasks or issues were a problem for them. The following were rated as a 'serious or very serious problem': 'ineffective teachers' by 40 per cent of respondents; 'getting teachers to accept new ideas' by 33 per cent; 'promoting professional development' by 25 per cent; and 'regular formal appraisal of teachers' by 20 per cent (Bolam et al., 2000: 28). The links between professional development and changing notions of professionalism and accountability were also apparent. Thus, in The Netherlands, 'promoting professional development' posed particular problems, apparently because of:

> the tradition of teachers' professional freedom in determining whether or not they take part in such activities. With the introduction of greater autonomy for schools and school level control of funding for professional development, there has been a greater need for consistent school policies in this area. Teachers' traditional autonomy has posed problems for Dutch headteachers wishing to introduce a policy on professional development. (Karstanje, 2000: 30)

More generally, professional development is also accepted as being 'central to the way principals manage schools, in at least two respects: first, as instruc-

tional leaders, principals may be expected to coordinate professional progression of their staff; second, they need to manage the learning community as a whole, using development as part of school change' (OECD, 2001: 27).

Approaches to professional development have varied considerably between countries over the past 20 years and continue to do so (OECD, 1982; 1998). The dominant paradigm in England and Wales, from the 1960s through to the early 1980s, gave primacy to the needs of individual professionals. Developments in national policy and in the financing of professional development in the mid-1980s changed this situation dramatically (Bolam, 1993). The most important changes included the introduction of five compulsory training days for all teachers; the creation of a regulated-market in which schools received annual funding to provide and buy training and consultancy services; a framework of national priority topic areas linked to the national reforms; a substantial reduction in the capacity of local authorities to deliver training; a substantial increase in the number of professional associations and unions, private trainers and consultants, and other commercial agencies offering training; more flexible, market-driven, university-based, Master's-level provision (e.g. modularisation, credit transfer and accumulation, accreditation of prior learning and experience, professional development profiles, distance and open learning programmes); and a substantial increase in the number of taught doctorates, especially the education doctorate.

The intended model of professional development consequential on these changes can be characterised roughly as follows. Self-developing, reflective teachers, in self-managing schools with devolved funding and five training days, design, implement and evaluate professional development programmes aimed at meeting an appropriate balance of individual teacher, school and national needs and priorities. However, research evidence from England and Wales indicates that the actual impact on professional development and professionalism was somewhat different from the intended model.

McMahon (1999) reported on a study based on a sample of teachers in 66 secondary schools in four English LEAs. She found that the operation of the in-service training market was substantially influenced by two major sets of factors – geographical location and the size of individual continuing professional development (CPD) budgets. Rural schools had poorer access to provision than their urban counterparts and some schools had three times as much money as others. The five training days were most often used for administrative purposes (e.g. departmental planning) and in any case were based on needs derived from the schools' development plan; only 28 per cent of schools allocated any of these days for individual professional development needs. The aims and content of all training activities were primarily driven by the national reform agenda with most activities taking the form of short training courses which, as research has demonstrated over the years (GTC Trust, 1993), are weak at promoting sustained change. McMahon concluded that

this tendency for the training agenda to be centrally determined was increased by two factors: first, the government's emphasis on training teachers to meet the numeracy and literacy targets; second, the policy of linking the funding for university courses to national priorities, as a result of which several lost their funding. These findings, which are broadly consistent with earlier research, indicate that the notion of site-based management of professional development within a regulated market did not operate widely in practice. Rather, the professional development agenda was determined largely by the needs of centrally imposed reforms and by the needs of the schools and departments to implement them. This left little scope, given their limited resources and access to provision, for schools to meet the professional development needs of individual teachers, with obvious implications for teacher professionalism.

Emerging policies have acknowledged the importance of these issues by increasing investment in professional development for individual teachers (DfEE, 2000). Two examples are worth highlighting. First, professional bursaries are being paid directly to teachers to help them achieve their individual career goals, for example by studying for a Master's degree. Second, £3million is being allocated for individual Research Scholarships, again to be paid directly to teachers, to carry out research in partnership with a university and other schools.

Some contemporary trends

Certain key trends are currently affecting both professional development and teacher professionalism in many countries. They often take the form of a 'modernisation' or 're-structuring' strategy and can be far-reaching in their effects. Thus, in Norway a 'New Employment Agreement' was introduced in the mid-1990s. Although a new pay structure was at its heart, its main aim was to facilitate the introduction of new school policies by promoting teamwork, flexibility and the development of teaching competencies (Jordet, 2000: 85). In this section, four important developments are highlighted.

First, a number of countries have introduced national *standards of professional practice* for teachers and headteachers. One of the first examples was in the USA where the National Board of Professional Teacher Standards (NBPTS) developed standards and assessment procedures for 30 subject areas based on five principles:

- Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
- Teachers know the subject they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.
- Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring students' learning.
- Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
- Teachers are members of learning communities (NBPTS, 1993).

According to Fullan (2001: 257), there is some evidence that this is producing positive outcomes.

In England and Wales, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) introduced a comprehensive 'national curriculum' framework for initial and in-service teacher education, including head teacher training, which was tightly coupled to the strategies of successive governments for raising standards and school improvement. The framework for professional development was based on four sets of national standards for newly qualified teachers, special needs teachers, subject leaders and headteachers. The Standards for Qualified Teacher Status are presented in four sections:

1 Knowledge and understanding (i.e. of subject matter).
2 Planning teaching and class management.
3 Monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability.
4 Other professional requirements (TTA, 1998a).

The equivalent set for subject leaders is in five parts:

1 Core purposes of the subject leader.
2 Key outcomes of subject leadership.
3 Professional knowledge and understanding.
4 Skills and attributes.
5 Key areas of subject leadership (TTA, 1998b).

At present there is little research evidence about the usage or impact of these standards. Those for newly qualified teachers are used in initial training but their use in schools beyond that is unclear. Those for headteachers are used in the assessment for the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers but their use for headteacher appointments or in-service training is unclear. The extent to which those for subject leaders are used is also unclear.

A second emerging feature of the 'modernisation' strategy in several countries is *performance management and performance-related pay*. In the USA, various types of schemes are being tried (Pecori, 2000). The scheme in England and Wales requires those wishing to go beyond a pay threshold to engage in a rigorous assessment process which itself is rooted in a new annual appraisal system for all teachers. The scheme is currently being implemented following considerable, but by no means united, opposition from teachers' associations, some of whom argued that teacher accountability for student outcomes dominates the system. To the surprise of many, the take-up by teachers of the opportunity to cross the 'threshold' has been high. However, experience and research on the management of change tell us that such complex and controversial innovations are often jeopardised in the medium to longer-term process of implementation. Specifically, problems are likely to arise in two areas. First, the scheme is labour intensive, logistically complex

and expensive to operate. Second, the costs of the threshold payments are initially being funded centrally. How far schools will be able to sustain the system when they have to pay for it from their own budgets remains to be seen: the early signs are that it is likely to be too expensive. Third, and more fundamentally, it runs the serious risk of being counterproductive and non-cost-effective in terms of achieving its strategic objectives if, as many have predicted, performance-related pay proves to be professionally divisive. The government proposes that each school should become a learning organisation, which it defines as: 'an organisation in which learning is a continuing, strategically used process, integrated with and running parallel to core activities and where interactions with other organisations and communities are perceived to be further opportunities for learning' (DfEE, 2000, para. 9).

Research and experience both indicate that a collaborative professional culture is a ***sine qua non*** for a learning organisation engaged in ongoing improvement. For example, Gray et al. (1999) concluded that improving schools, 'had found ways of facilitating more discussion among colleagues about classroom issues than hitherto' (ibid.: 144). The contradictions between these findings and the potentially divisive consequences of performance-related pay are clear. In a North American context, Fullan (2001) endorses the conclusion that effective schools have established professionally collaborative cultures. He points out, 'Certainly individual merit pay, career ladders and similar schemes have failed miserably' (ibid.: 258).

Third, in England, and elsewhere, there is an increasing focus on *evidence-informed practice* as a means of promoting school improvement, professional development and for teacher professionality (Hoyle and John, 1995). A major part of its rationale is the belief that teaching ought to emulate medicine and aim to be a research-informed profession (Hargreaves, 1996). Three broad, interconnected approaches are open to school leaders who wish to promote evidence-informed practice. They can:

- promote systematic research and evaluation in the school, in departments and by individual classroom teachers
- adopt a more systematic approach to the collection, analysis and use of 'routine' data, for example, in relation to students' examination results, value-added data and external school inspection reports
- search for and use externally generated research.

The first mode is well established in action research but the second is becoming more common. George (1998) reported an evaluation of a project in which 42 small schools used value-added data to plan specific follow-up action. Myers (1996) reported on a school improvement project in eight secondary schools, which involved teachers as action researchers. Joyce et al. (1999) proposed a model of improvement based on the school as a centre of

inquiry 'which involves the collection and analysis of data and reflection on it' (ibid.: 12) and explored their model in a series of rigorous case studies. Southworth and Conner (1999) presented a rationale for evidence-based management together with practical guidelines and case studies. Financial support for teachers wishing to engage in these two modes is now available from government (TTA, 1999). The rationale for the third mode is the belief that practitioners should have access to high quality research and should use it to inform their decisions and actions. A government-funded research unit is promoting the use of systematic reviews of research as its central methodology for building up robust knowledge to inform practice (EPPI, 2000). It is committed to the involvement of users and practitioners from the design to dissemination stages of systematic reviews

None of these modes is unproblematic. For example, Dudley (1999) highlighted the difficulties faced by teachers when they try to use data to improve their teaching. Similarly, Chapman (1995), in a headteacher's perspective, reported on two pieces of action research, both of high quality, conducted at a secondary school. The first, by a head of department, was well received and acted upon. The second, by a trainer, was not. He concluded that a collaborative approach is likely to be most effective and that it is the head teacher's job to create the conditions for this to take place. There is evidence (e.g. Joyce et al., 1999; Sebba, 1997) to suggest that the strategy may work and that it deserves further exploration as a means of promoting professional development, the school as a learning organisation and school improvement.

This links directly with the fourth trend – the emerging importance of the idea of schools as *professional learning communities*. The concept of a professional learning community is informed by literature about what it is to be a professional, adult learning and the meaning of community. A new form of professionalism is emerging in which teachers work more closely and collaboratively with colleagues, students and parents, linking teacher and school development (Hargreaves, 1994; Stoll et al., in press). Thus, King and Newmann (2001), argue that teacher learning is most likely to occur when teachers:

- can concentrate on instruction and student outcomes in the specific contexts in which they teach
- have sustained opportunities to study, to experiment with and to receive helpful feedback on specific innovations
- have opportunities to collaborate with professional peers, both within and outside their schools, along with access to the expertise of researchers.

Similarly, in the USA, Smylie (1995) drew upon a range of adult learning theories to identify conditions of effective workplace learning, including opportunities for teachers to learn from peer colleagues in collaborative group work

settings, with open communication, experimentation and feedback. The community focus emphasises mutually supportive relationships and the development of shared norms and values whereas the focus in the literature about professionals and professionalism is towards the acquisition of knowledge and skills, orientation to clients and professional autonomy (Louis et al., 1995).

To some extent these developments are rooted in earlier ideas on school-focused in-service training as a mechanism for promoting school improvement (Fullan, 2001: 255; OECD, 1982: 20). The attractiveness of these ideas is explained by recognising the power of teachers' practicality ethic. Moreover, they find support from more specific theories like experiential learning (Kolb, 1975), reflective practice, (Schön, 1987), process knowledge (Eraut, 1994), cognitive and problem-based professional learning (Grady et al., 1995; Leithwood et al., 1995) and professional socialisation.

Discussion and conclusion

The implications of these developments and issues for autonomy, accountability, teaching and learning, strategy and partnerships are manifold and interconnected. The following are among the most important. First, there is a continuing need for better evaluations focused on outcomes and impact measures and directed as closely as possible at student learning. It is salutary to note how few published evaluation studies about continuing professional development make any reference to impact on teacher behaviour or student learning outcomes. The simple explanation is that researchers in universities and elsewhere have simply not carried out enough robust studies. However, the underlying reason is that such evaluations have been acknowledged as problematic for some time (GTC Trust, 1993) for, as Guskey points out: 'Because of the powerful and dynamic influence of context, it is impossible to make precise statements about the elements of an effective professional development programme' (Guskey, 1995: 117–18). Yet such evaluations are certainly possible, as Joyce et al. (1999) for example, have demonstrated.

Second, some issues are new, or at least have taken on a new significance in the changing political climate. In particular, it is worth noting that many analysts have located them within a broader theoretical framework – that of managerialism or new public management (NPM). This concept was adapted from the private sector (Ferlie et al., 1996; Levačić, 1999) and applied across the public sector in health, social services and housing. In education, its main features include increased centralisation of decision-making to the national level, reduced collegial involvement in national policy-making, an increased emphasis on line management and managerial control of teachers' work in the interests of efficiency, the weakening of teacher autonomy, the creation of new managerial roles, skills and responsibilities and the emergence of a more distinct managerial layer in schools. In addition, it is linked closely with various

forms of market-oriented mechanisms together with an increased emphasis on target-setting, 'rational' management and accountability. Moreover, the phenomenon is by no means unique to Britain. Similar approaches have been adopted by other countries in Europe and North America and by Australia and New Zealand (Moos and Dempster, 1998). The relevance of this perspective to the issues discussed above will be apparent. Moreover, it seems likely that, because NPM is supported by governments of all parties and in international agencies like the OECD, its techniques and the overall strategy are likely to continue to exercise a considerable influence on education and, more specifically, on professional development and professionalism.

Third, although there is general agreement that various forms of partnership can make a useful contribution to the provision of professional development (Graham et al., 1999), NPM techniques in universities have rendered this problematic. Thus, although university schools of education have traditionally played a key role in the provision of professional development opportunities, their contribution is now much reduced. The reasons are largely because they now operate in a quasi-market and are simultaneously subject to the pressures of NPM (Bolam, 2000). In turn, this makes it difficult for them to collaborate and compete with other, often commercial, providers in a partnership or to become professional schools, alongside law, medicine and engineering. Such professional schools could be the main source of professional education and development, providing independent settings for sustained periods of professional study, aimed at improving teaching and learning in classrooms and schools, as well as for reflection on professional values. Moreover, this would also strengthen their contributions to research and evidence-informed practice (Furlong, 2000).

Fourth, the implied question – what is the most appropriate institutional location for professional education? – raises related issues about the distinctive characteristics of *professional* development and *professionalism* and, accordingly, about the values and principles which should inform them. A recent policy paper in England adopted an instrumentalist position: 'Professional development is all about making sure that teachers have the finest and most up-to-date tools for their job' (DfEE, 2000: 1). Unexceptionable as this is, as far as it goes, it does not address issues like what it means to be a professional educator, what kind of development professional educators need, or the many ethical and values issues thrown up by professional development policy and practice.

The position adopted here is that:

> professional development is the process by which teachers and headteachers learn, enhance and use appropriate knowledge, skills and values. The notion of appropriateness must itself be based on shared and public value judgements about the needs and best interests of their clients. Thus, although this perspective certainly includes staff, management and human resource

> development directed at raising standards and the improvement of teaching and learning, it recognises that, because these are essentially employer- and organisation-oriented concepts, they should be seen as only a part of professional development, albeit a fundamentally important part. The essence of professional development for educators must surely involve the learning of an independent, evidence-informed and constructively critical approach to practice within a public framework of professional values and accountability, which are also open to critical scrutiny. (Bolam, 2000: 272)

These issues need to be addressed at the level of practice as well as policy. For example, it is notable that the Scottish version of the NPQH takes professional values as its starting point. The first Standard is called 'Professional Values' and requires head teachers: 'to hold, articulate and argue for professionally defensible educational values . . . based on the professional obligations of headteachers to serve the interests of children and young people in schools' (The SQH Development Unit, 1998: 4). There is nothing comparable in the National Standards for Headship nor, indeed, in any of the other national standards for England and Wales.

Fifth, these issues raise broader theoretical questions about the nature of a profession. Thus, Hoyle and John (1995) distinguish between professionalism, professionality and professionalisation in stressing the importance of considering: 'questions about the *nature* of teachers' autonomy, knowledge and responsibility, as these relate to effective practice, (ibid.: 16). In a similar vein, Whitty (2000) uses the terms 'new professionalism' and 'democratic professionalism' in exploring related issues in a broader discussion about the future of the teaching profession. From the perspective of policy and practice in England and Wales, it is encouraging to note that these issues are firmly on the agenda of the newly-established General Teaching Council for England (GTC, 2001).

Finally, it is important to raise the question: what do these developments and issues mean for headteachers and other school leaders with teacher management responsibilities? From a practical perspective, tools for implementing these and related ideas are widely available. They include professional development profiles (GTC Trust, 1993), action research (McMahon, 1999), action learning (Wallace, 1991), coaching (Joyce and Showers, 1988) mentoring and peer-assisted learning (Bolam et al., 1995) and the overall management of continuing professional development (e.g. Craft, 1996). From a theoretical perspective, there is no simple, straightforward answer to satisfy all school leaders. A response based loosely on contingency, situational and pluralist theories of leadership (see Bush, 1995: 154) must suffice. Essentially these argue that there is no single or 'correct' way either to lead or structure an organisation since the 'leaders', the 'led' and the organisation itself each have distinctive, even unique, characteristics, as do the tasks of leadership and

management, in what is invariably a changing, turbulent environment. Given the unavoidably contingent and unpredictable nature of their work, effective leaders and managers should adopt strategies and methods appropriate to their particular organisations, tasks, staff and contexts – local and national. It follows that they should learn and use a repertoire of styles and techniques and exercise informed professional judgement to operate effectively within the constraints and opportunities of their unique situation. This chapter has reviewed a range of contextual factors, developments and issues, including changing notions of professionalism, bearing on the task of managing professional development. The intention has been to offer insights to inform professional judgements and actions, which must, perforce, be made by individual professionals in their particular settings.

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